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THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

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Thoughts on Teachers and Teaching

The periodicals and textbooks in the area of the teaching profession contain a profusion of materials regarding the characteristics of effective teaching and efficient teachers. Frequently these materials present lists of traits and qualities found necessary and desirable in good teaching. One gets the impression that there is such a being as a "standardized" teacher, and that we as individual teachers conform to or deviate from this so-called "norm" in regard to these various aspects of the teaching art.

However, as one considers the profession of teaching, he soon realizes the futility of attempting to disect the art of teaching into a number of isolated or independent traits, or skills, or qualities. Teaching is a total, unified performance—not a segmented one—and depends upon many variables put together in different proportions and related to individual differences. It becomes impossible to tabulate and enumerate the qualities and traits of any one teacher.

When one reflects on the years of his own formal school and visualizes the characteristics of his own teachers, whom he considered as outstanding, he soon realizes the apparent differences among these teachers. How divergent they were in their teaching patterns and classroom relationships! Yet, each in his own unique way was an effective teacher. Let me illustrate briefly from my own experiences.

I shall never forget Mrs. X, who was without question an outstanding teacher in the field of literature. When Mrs. X read in her own inimitable way, the mysterious works of Bryon, Shelley, and Keats became beautiful and meaningful lines of poetry for students who had experienced great difficulty with these same lines before. The students became entranced at her artistry and could not avoid developing an appreciation for literature nor could they avoid acquiring the desirable concepts and objectives to be attained.

Then there was Professor Y, a nervous, energetic individual with a shrill, high voice. He would certainly not rank high on a tabulated list of teaching traits. Yet, when he met his history classes, history was re-lived. With a wealth of information and an unparallelled enthusiasm, he was able to recreate the great moments of the past, including the vivid descriptions of decisive battles and the immortal words and deeds of great statesmen. (And all without a note!)

Finally, I would mention Professor Z, a domineering yet personable individual, who carefully outlined his lectures beforehand for the students, and then proceeded to fill in the outline with illustrations, examples and comments to such a degree that no student was at a loss as to what was contained in the lesson. This individual was quite a humorist, incidentally, and somewhat inclined to expound his own personal experiences. Yet the humor and personal experiences were subtly correlated with the lesson at hand.

I cite, thus, three teachers, who in my opinion were outstanding, and who, I might add, were held in high esteem by the other students who had had the privilege of attending their classes. True, these teachers were from quite varying teaching areas, but their traits, qualities, and characteristics were just as varying. (If we add to this number any other number of exceptional teachers, the variances would continue to increase many fold.)

Nevertheless, these outstanding teachers did have some elements in common. In the first place, they all possessed a seemingly limitless quantity of knowledge, not only in their respective fields but in related fields as well. Each was unusually adept in calling forth this background information when the situation arose or demanded it. Secondly, they were completely enthusiastic about their courses and their responsibilities of teaching. This enthusiasm, although not revealed in like manner by each of the teachers, was nonetheless always evident. Thirdly, they had the ability to utilize with great skill a reservoir of teaching "know how" or what might well be termed "psychological principles of teaching." They understood the principles of learning, of motivation, and of interests and attitudes. They knew and utilized in proficient manner the values of preparation, organization, and presentation. They had a keen understanding of human nature and respect for the individual. All these things, they were able to weave into a pattern that exemplified teaching as a skillful art. But above all else, each loved to teach and was dedicated to his profession.

CHARLES HARDAWAY

Educational Uses of Closed Circuit Television: A Survey

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Television is a major phenomenon of America. Judged by its extreme rate of growth, its appeal to all ages, and its tremendous toll in man-hours of attention, television promises to become the nation's principal communication medium.

Although television is usually thought to be synonomous with entertainment, there is a large and continually growing use of television facilities for the purpose of education. This attention to the educative possibilities of television has taken many forms. Courses with academic credit are being offered by institutions of higher learning through the facilities of either commercial or educational TV stations. Many Colleges and universities, especially the land grant schools, are producing kinescopes of programs which are largely educational in content and manner of presentation. These kinescopes are given wide distribution for telecasting. On the television network level the efforts of Dr. Frances Horwich and others are to be noted. There is also the large portion of so-called educational programming presented by most commercial TV stations through the "public service" requirement of the Federal Communications Act that broadcasters provide programs in the public "interest, convenience, and necessity."

There is still another important area in the realm of educational television which is the concern of this article and is known as "closed circuit" television.

DEFINITION OF CLOSED CIRCUIT TELEVISION: "Closed Circuit" television is that system of television which provides for the transmission of the audio and video signals from their originating point to the receiver(s) by means of a coaxial or insulated cable instead of projecting the combined audio and video signal through the air for reception through an antenna by the receiver(s) as in the familiar "open circuit" system. In closed circuit television the audio signal from the microphone and the video signal from the TV camera chain are combined by means of a mixer before the signal is sent through the cable to the receiver. In open circuit television the audio and video signals are combined at the transmitter before being projected into the air for reception. In either means of transmission, the same commercial-type receiver can be used.

In a closed circuit system the number of classroom receivers or monitors which can be used technically is limited only by the number and strength of pre-line or station amplifiers which act to "boost" the signal along in its journey from the mixer to the receiver. One of the larger closed circuit installations is found at the Signal School, Fort Monmouth, New Jersey, which has 150 classrooms equipped with receivers plus five large screen television projectors installed in various theaters on the post.

SCHOOLS USING CLOSED CIRCUIT TV. The October, 1955 *Educational Television Newsletter*, of the Committee on Television, Washington, D. C., lists sixty closed circuit installations in use as a part of the educational programs of colleges, universities, and public school systems. Twenty-seven states and the District of Columbia are represented in the list.

Many of these schools use their closed circuit facilities principally for the purpose of experimentation with program ideas and types, the rehearsal of programs for "on-the-air" transmission and the training of personnel in television production techniques. Schools which comprise this group are largely those which are engaged in broadcasting through their own or a commercial outlet, or they are concerned with the production of kinescope films for use by commercial and educational television stations. Some of this group present live telecasts and also make kinescope films.

CLOSED CIRCUIT EXPERIMENTS. In addition to the above uses of closed circuit facilities, there are

Studio Set-up for a Demonstration Lesson

Control Room Personnel: Director, Switcher, Ass't Director, and Audio Operator

those schools which are experimenting with instruction in the classroom. Current experiments of note are listed below.

In the spring of 1954, the Pennsylvania State University with a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education conducted an initial study as to the effective use of closed circuit TV in the teaching of courses in general psychology, chemistry, and the psychology of marriage. The experiment was planned to study the effectiveness of unmodified or conventional courses when taught for a full semester over closed circuit TV, using moderate cost equipment as compared with the same instruction given in the traditional manner. Tests given during the semester indicated that televised instruction was not inferior to direct instruction.

The experiment is being continued during the current school year and is being enlarged from three subjects to eleven courses adapted for television instruction. A complete report of the initial experiment has been published by Pennsylvania State University.

The State University of Iowa is conducting an experiment designed to test teaching by lecture on TV without losing the value of discussion. A two-way hookup between the viewing rooms and the lecturer in the broadcast room permits direct communication. The subject matter area is "Comparative Foreign Governments."

Iowa State College is experimenting to determine if television may not be used successfully to extend the skill and experience of a senior professor to more students for more hours, maintaining at the same time (if not improving upon) the quality of instruction now given by more conventional methods. The subject area is freshman chemistry.

New York University, with support from The Fund for the Advancement of Education, is experimenting by means of closed circuit television with instruction in college composition and the Literature of England. The purpose of the experiment is three-fold: to determine if TV can (1) extend the effectiveness of the individual teacher and improve the quality of instruction, (2) meet teacher shortage, and (3) enable the teaching profession to share more fully the improved standard of living of Americans by extending individual effectiveness through technological devices. The courses taught meet for three hours, two of which are televised lecture-demonstrations taught by several senior faculty members. The third hour is tutorial, and small groups of students meet with the same teacher through the term.

Stephens College, through grants from The Fund for the Advancement of Education and the Radio Corporation of America, is experimenting with a new orientation course for all freshmen students and is using the facilities of closed circuit television to bring the lectures of visiting professor Renel Denney of the University of Chicago simultaneously into fifty classrooms where the students meet. Under the supervision of two faculty members in each classroom, independent discussion takes place as a result of the ideas introduced by television which serve as an experience common to all student groups.

Other closed circuit experiments have been concluded and partial consideration of the results are available.

Syracuse University, during the summer of 1953, conducted a five-weeks experiment in teaching a regularly scheduled freshmen course in responsible citizenship. For one and a half hours each morning, Dr. Calvin Cope, assistant professor in the Maxwell School of Citizenship, discussed assigned reading for the day, answered questions, and stimulated classroom discussion among his studio students. The experiment was conducted in the campus TV studio. An attempt was made to reproduce the classroom scene as accurately as possible. Cameramen were instructed not to look for unusual angles nor sensational shots. To eliminate over-emphasis on the opinions of the instructor, or on the views of any magnetic personality among the students, cameras were focused sometimes on the teacher, sometimes on any group of four or five students regardless of who was speaking at the moment.

When final grades were tabulated from a series of tests, student televiewers did equally as well as their control group classroom counterparts.

Medical and dental schools have been experimenting with instruction by closed circuit since 1949 when the University of Kansas Medical School began its pioneering work in televising surgical procedures to its medical students. Various medical societies have

experimented with closed circuit television as a method of giving up-to-date information on the latest medical techniques and discoveries to practicing physicians.

Extensive experimentation with closed circuit use in various aspects of military training has been carried on by several branches of the Armed Forces. Although this use by the military concerned rather highly specialized instruction, many of the observations and results of the Armed Forces experimentation have important implications for educators. The exact nature of some of this work is considered as classified information and is not generally available for study. From those reports which have been published there is a clear evidence of a successful use of closed circuit television in the ways in which it was tested.

SOME EXPERIMENT CONCLUSIONS. A study of experiments which have been concluded presents the following data concerning the technical, physical, and instructional aspects of the users of closed circuit television for educational purposes.

1. *The TV Classroom.* Classrooms already in existence were used for all experiments in teaching by closed circuit television, both civilian and military.

The problem of room illumination was handled in different ways. At Pennsylvania State the window shades were drawn and the overhead lights were kept on. Although the military used full lighting several times with good results, the students complained. Apparently they were conditioned to darkness when viewing TV at home and when attending motion picture theaters. Turning out half the lights seemed to have a psychological effect. Although the room was not darkened completely the students were satisfied.

Rearrangement of furniture in the classroom was often necessary to permit unobstructed viewing by all students.

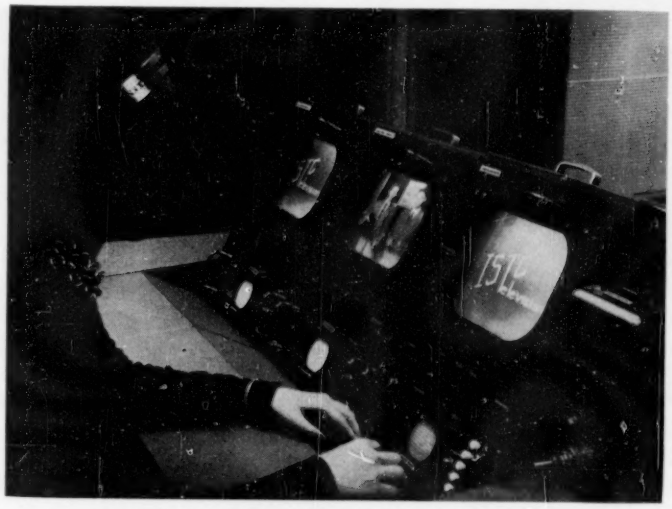
2. *Class Size.* Class size was limited in some instances, depending on the subject matter and the type of presentation—lecture, demonstration, etc. The Pennsylvania State experiment limited their largest class to 65 with an average class size of 35. The military classrooms at Ft. Monmouth were arranged to seat either 20 or 30 students. The U. S. Naval Academy sections are small, averaging about 14 midshipmen each in accordance with the Academy's tutorial arrangement. At Stephens College, the groups in the controlled experiment averaged 17 students each.

Technically, the size of the class which can be taught by television is unlimited. By using additional monitors placed about the classroom to provide adequate viewing and by using supplementary speakers to provide adequate sound, television may reach any sized group.

3. *Monitor Size and Speakers.* In many of the classrooms used, one monitor was considered sufficient. The size of the room and the number of viewers were determining factors.

In all experiments, monitors were of the 21-inch size or larger. Stephens College and Pennsylvania State used the 24-inch size receiver. The military first used 17-inch sets but soon changed in favor of the 21-inch set. Students, instructors, and technical staff members all agreed that although the 21-inch set was an improvement, no further increase in size was necessary.

The placement of the monitor was not usually considered a special problem with the exception of attempting to avoid as much reflection from overhead and natural lighting sources as possible on the picture tube. Placing the monitor in a position most favorable for viewing by the entire group was also an important consideration. At Pennsylvania State classroom monitos were placed on stands at heights between four feet six inches and five feet six inches. To avoid unnecessary reflection, the set was tilted forward and a hood was installed to project over the front of each receiver.



A Student Learns TV Switching Techniques

Adequate sound for the classroom also presented some problems. Complaints were with much greater frequency from students who could not hear than from students who could not see. In classrooms not acoustically responsive to sounds, the speaker built into the receiver set was not adequate. Additional speakers were mounted about the room at appropriate distances so that the entire classroom was blanketed with sound. The origination of the voice at a source other than the

picture tube was readily accepted by the students and made no apparent difference.

4. *The Length of the TV Lesson.* The length of the TV lesson varied considerably from experiment to experiment. Syracuse University reported lessons of one hour and thirty minutes. Stephens College used twice weekly twenty minute talks. The University of Kansas Medical School reports using television sequences, averaging from three to five in number for each class meeting, each scene lasting for three to ten minutes depending on the nature of the operation to be presented. Generally the best effect has been obtained when numerous short scenes have been scattered through the program of televising a surgical operation. The U.S. Naval Academy reports that best results came from programs of 10 to 20 minutes in length, with occasionally one of 30 to 35 minutes, never longer. The subject matter taught in the Naval Academy experiments was high specialized. At Pennsylvania State the courses were taught for three one-hour lecture periods each week. At New York University two of the three hours per week which the class met were devoted to instruction by television.

There is no general agreement on the best length of time for the television lesson. Obviously the skill of the instructor, the subject content of the lesson since some subject matter by its very nature would be attention sustaining, and the degree of interest in the subject matter by the student are of great importance in determining the optimum lesson time.

5. *The Selection and Training of Teachers For Closed Circuit Television.* The selection and training for teachers for closed circuit instruction was handled differently in the various schools experimenting with the medium.

In almost every instance when the lecture method of presentation was employed, a senior faculty member and master teacher was given the assignment. In other situations the responsibility for the television lesson was passed from faculty member to faculty member, as at the University of Kansas Medical School.

The courses used in the Pennsylvania State experiment were taught by faculty members of all rank. When the use of television was employed, the senior member of the faculty gave the television lessons and the junior members acted as classroom observers and discussion group leaders.

Students View and Criticize a TV Lesson

At Syracuse University a senior faculty member was the instructor of the TV course. The same was true at Stephens College and at New York University.

At Ft. Monmouth, the selection of suitable instructors was handled in an empiric fashion. When operations were started, classroom and laborotory instructors were invited to present a lesson in the studio. Those instructors who showed greatest promise were ultimately chosen to begin teaching an entire subccurse.

The preparation of the instructor for teaching by television varied widely from no preparation to lengthy coaching by TV personnel and practice in front of the cameras. After their first appearances in front of the camera, most television teachers welcomed opportunities for becoming better acquainted with the facilities of television.

6. *Preparation for the Presentation of the Television Lesson.* In all instances of experimentation but one (mentioned below), beforehand preparation was considered necessary. Although the autonomy of the instructor in his classroom was protected, the necessity of acquainting the technical crew with the specific elements of the lesson material was vitally important for a successful lesson. This rehearsal was especially important when demonstrations were a part of the lesson. Experimentation subsequently led to a determination of the most advantageous method of presentation. The experience of both crew and instructor gained through repetition of the lesson situation often led to a reduction in the amount of time necessary for rehearsal but seldom led to a complete discontinuation of the rehearsal period.

At Pennsylvania State there were no rehearsals prior to each class meeting. The coverage of the lesson was likened to the television coverage of a football or baseball game in which the action occurs and is followed by the cameramen. The skill of the camera operator and controller in following the lesson was an important asset.

The tendency toward comparison by the student of the professionalism of the non-educational telecaster to the

Continued on page 89

How to Organize a Speech Correction and Hearing Therapy Program in Indiana

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Editor's Note: This is the second in a series of three articles by Dr. Porter and Mr. Rayburn concerning provisions for handicapped children in the public schools in Indiana. The first article, "How to Organize a Special Program for Mentally Retarded Children in Indiana," appeared in the January, 1956, issue of the Teachers College Journal, *Vol. XXVII No. 4, pp. 56 ff. The third article, "Organizing a Program for the Physically Handicapped Children in Indiana," will appear in the May,* 1956, Journal.

Children with defective speech and those who have defective hearing are exceptional children if their problem is great enough to interfere seriously with their education. In certain of these cases special education is not only helpful but essential if a child is to make the most of his opportunities.

Several acts of the Indiana Assembly relate to children who have hearing losses and one act to those who have speech defects. The earliest provision was general and passed in 1927, but the chief law relates to both speech and hearing and is written in Chapter 276 of the Acts of 1947 where provisions of the statutes include instruction for any pupils who have a physical and/or mental disability. . . ."Classes shall be approved for children with defective hearing and children with defective speech." A ruling classifies defective speech as a physical handicap as it does defective hearing. Chapter 81 of the Acts of 1955 specify that reimbursement shall be limited to eighty per cent of the excess cost. Chapter 212 of the Acts of 1941 provides for the testing of the hearing of all school children, while Chapter 184, Acts of 1951, limits the required testing to grades 1, 4, 7, and 10 and Chapter 53, Acts of 1953 requires such testing be done annually. Chapter 166 of the Acts of 1955 provides for a "Hearing Commission" composed of five members. The commission shall have the power and authority to coordinate all of the activities in the State in the education of hearing handicapped children and especially mentions The Indiana School for the Deaf, Division of Special Education of the State Department of Public Instruction, and private organizations. Under the provisions of this law it will be possible to establish day classes for auditorily handicapped children, and the regulations are being worked out now.

Although the several laws were individually passed without any significant attempt to have the work integrated, they all effect the education of the hard-of-hearing and if used properly can work to their advantage. Actually only the one law specifically mentions the speech defective child, but since the hard-of-hearing child usually has the problem of developing or maintaining satisfactory speech habits, the two defects, speech and hearing, are irrevocably entwined.

A school superintendent interested in investigating possible special education programs will first need to be informed about these legal provisions for helping exceptional children and the rules and regulations implementing the laws which have been prepared by the General Education Commission of the State Board of Education.

A problem for early consideration will be the number of children eligible for inclusion in a program. The question which must be answered first is one of definition. How defective shall speech have to be before remediation is needed and how small a hearing loss shall result in required hearing conservation or other re-education? The specialist can work out the details of a definition later and at this point the superintendent may work with considered estimates.

Defective speech is classified according to three types. Functional articulation is a serious problem for two to three per cent of the school children, and a mild problem for two to three per cent. About one per cent of the school children stutter and one to two per cent have defective voice. Putting these percentages together indicates seven to eight per cent of the children have defective speech. Some of the cases are mild and may need no correction at all. The percentage of five seems a reasonable one for estimating the number of children who may be expected to need correction.

Children with hearing losses number about five per cent of the school population, but some of these are classified as "slight." They should be referred for medical examination and possible treatment and should be rechecked periodically but probably will not need special education. A program for the moderate and fairly severe cases can usually be integrated with a speech correction program. Two to three per cent might be considered about right for estimating purposes. The severely hard-of-hearing and the deaf should not be considered in the usual school remedial program.

With the percentage of incidence of defective speech and defective hearing and the school enrollment figures, a school superintendent can come to a general decision about his need. Using five per cent for defective speech and three per cent for defective hearing, a school population of 1,500 would indicate 120 children needing special education. Since some of these would be mild and rather quickly corrected the number would decrease rather rapidly. Probably a school population of 2,000 to 2,500 would be a satisfactory one on which to base one full-time speech and hearing program. This number might be reached in a single school corporation or might be a joint program in two or more corporations. There are several county programs in the State.

There is a shortage of speech correctionists and hearing therapists but each of the four state colleges in Indiana have graduates each year as do several of the private colleges of the State. Usually a plan to start a special program should be made a year ahead of starting it so teachers could be interviewed in the early spring for employment in September. Most schools which have planned this way have been successful in getting teachers. Some other schools, year after year, get interested each fall in starting a program that same fall and year after year they are disappointed because no teacher is available.

The requirements for a speech correctionist and a hearing therapist are slightly different, but many teachers hold both credentials. The specific requirements for the credentials are given as follows in Bulletin 192, Handbook on Teacher Education in Indiana, Department of Public Instruction, Division of Teacher Training and Licensing, 1954.

Speech Correctionist Certificate: A baccalaureate degree with a secondary or general elementary certificate with credit in the following courses: phonetics, psychology of exceptional children, clinical psychology, mental measurements, diagnostic and remedial reading, public speaking, discussion, or fundamentals of speech, anatomy and physiology of the ear and vocal mechanism, psychophysics of sound and audiometric testing, speech pathology (elementary), speech pathology (advanced), clinical practice in speech correction. To add Hearing Therapist Certificate, credit is required in these additional courses: hearing conservation and pathology, lip reading, and clinical practice in lip reading.

Other than a general estimate of the possible number of children no further survey need be made until the specialist starts to work. However, if a superintendent has any doubt about the need for a program or desires consulting assistance it can be obtained at any of the four state colleges or at several of the private colleges which have field service programs. Arrangements may be made with the Speech and Hearing Administrator in the State Department of Health, Division of Maternal and Child Care. Arrangements may include complete surveys of speech or speech and hearing or consulting services. If the survey is left for the speech and hearing therapist, it will be organized and conducted as soon as possible after school opens. Whatever system is used, the Director, Division of Special Education of the State Department of Public Instruction must be informed that a program is being planned because permission must be obtained in writing before the program starts.

Several decisions will be necessary in the beginning relating to where to start and how thin to spread the work. Usually the speech correctionist will go first to an elementary school, explain the program to the principal, and frequently go before the faculty explaining in detail what the program includes and what part each teacher will have in it. A specific schedule for screening the children will be set up. Usually the correctionist will listen to each child's speech for a minute or so but sometimes the survey is based on children referred by each classroom teacher. After the survey in the first school is completed a correction program should be started as soon as possible even though this will progressively slow the screening process in other schools. Otherwise many teachers, parents, and children get discouraged before the program starts. When the speech correctionist and hearing therapist is the same person it is a good idea to work on speech first so information for Form 23 will be available before 15 October, the deadline for filing it.

The screening program for hearing will be conducted by the hearing therapist but because of special legislative action reported in Chapter 212, Acts of 1941 the cost is not reimbursable under the special education law of 1947 or 1955. The interpretation is that each school, whether there is a special education program or not, shall provide tests of hearing each year of the children in grades 1, 4, 7, and 10. Needless to say, it is difficult to make the most of the hearing testing unless there is available some specialist to conduct a follow-up program with the necessary re-education. When the specialist is available, hearing may be tested in each grade each year rather than only the minimum provision being made.

Hearing is usually tested by means of a pure-tone audiometer with the clinician working with one child at a time. An experienced clinician with a well organized program and with teacher cooperation will be able to test about 150 children in a day. Unless an audiometer is already available in the school it is considered a good idea to allow the clinician to select the instrument he likes best. Several good instruments are available through local distributors.

Children who are found to have a hearing loss should be referred to their family physicians. When lip reading is recommended, the re-education program should be started immediately because parents, teachers and child may become discouraged if it is delayed.

The number of children with which a clinician should work is dependent on several factors and does not arise in either Indiana legislation or regulating policy. However, such a figure is

useful in program planning and 100-125 different children is frequently considered reasonable. It is up to the specialist in considering the needs of each child to make the program of lessons per week, length of lesson and whether it should be individual or with other children. A therapist will usually work in several schools traveling from one to another. Many different plans are possible but one essential difference between this program and other school programs is that children in speech correction and hearing therapy are always taken for short periods from regular school classes in which they will be enrolled most of the time.

The deaf children will be recommended for enrollment in the Indiana School for the Deaf or perhaps in day schools which legally may be established under provisions of either Chapter 81 or 166 of the Acts of 1955. Since these are special programs they will not be described further in this report.

Form 23 of the Division of Special Education of the State Department of Public Instruction must be filed with the Director by 15 October each year. This includes the name of the child, defect, name of physician who has examined the child, name and address of parents. The form shall be signed by the school superintendent and the school trustee. A statement of the desirability of speech correction or hearing therapy, signed by the physician, must be on file for each child and must be renewed at least every three years. It is a real task to complete this information for 100 children and anyone responsible should not underestimate the time it will take, or 15 October, the latest filing date, will be past and it will be too late to have the program approved for the year.

Reimbursement is calculated on an A.D.A. basis, so although "case load" has been used to describe the program this far, it is now necessary to convert to A.D.A.

Rule S-1, Section 17, Regulations, General Commission, State Department of Public Instruction states that each therapist shall maintain an A.D.A. of *two* for optimum reimbursement if working on an individual basis.

To compute A.D.A. it is necessary for the therapist to have a record showing exactly how many children were worked with for each period of each day for the entire year. This figure can be changed to per-child-minutes and that divided by a daily or weekly figure based on a five hour day or twenty five hour week to convert to A.D.A. The time used in conducting hearing tests under the 1941, 1951 or 1953 laws cannot be counted but, of course, hearing therapy, speech training, lip reading, etc., are counted the same as speech correction. Since all of these children are enrolled in regular grades the school corporation will receive the usual State reimbursement. In addition to this there will be a special reimbursement of eighty per cent of the excess cost beyond the cost of the A.D.A. the therapist reports. The cost of an A.D.A. or per capita cost is the figure reported for the previous year on Form "Report of School Trustee to the State Superintendent" Form 9, Section 2. In addition certain equipment may be approved for reimbursement on a 50-50 basis.

Suppose the salary of a combination speech correctionist-hearing therapist were $4,200, the per capita cost from last year's report $250, and the A.D.A. for the year's work 2.1. The excess cost would be found by multiplying 2.1 by $250 and subtracting the product from $4,200. The reimbursement in this example is eighty per cent of $3,675 or $2,940. In certain special cases a few extras might be reimbursable but salary is the chief one.

The report for reimbursement is made, within ten days after the end of the school year or in no case later than 15 June, on Form 24, to the Division of Special Education, State Department of Public Instruction. This form requires detailed information about the program, therapist certification, etc., so should be examined early in the year in order that adequate data can be kept for filling it.

New Forms 23 and 24 are required each year but like most forms they are rather easy to make after the first time.

CHECK LIST OF DO's

1. Estimate the number of children in the corporation or in cooperating school corporations to determine the need for a speech correction and hearing therapy program.

2. Consult with the Director of Special Education of the State Department of Public Instruction.

3. If a survey by an outside agency to help in establishing the program is desired it should be done the year before the program is to be established.

4. Investigate the availability of a properly certificated person as early as the spring before the program is to start in the fall.

5. As soon as the specialist is hired and school opens conduct a survey for children with defective speech, one school at a time, select those who need correction, notify the parents, obtain a medical statement, and start correction.

6. If the specialist conducts the survey for children with defective hearing, an accurate record of the time required must be kept because this cannot be included for reimbursement.

7. A medical statement is required and must be kept on file. It is usually furnished by the parents and must be renewed at least every three years. The statement shall be on file before names are reported on Form 23 or correction is started.

8. Form 23 shall be filed not later than 15 October each year, but if the program is new, the permission to open it must have been obtained from the Director, Division of Special Education, State Department of Public Instruction before school opens.

9. A record of the therapy program for each day of the entire year must be kept as it will be needed at the end of the year in preparing Form 24.

10. Application for reimbursement is made on Form 24 and shall be filed within ten days after the close of school or not later than 15 June.

The Audio-Visual Center as a Force In Curriculum Improvement

RUSSELL McDOUGAL
DIRECTOR OF AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION
INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

"What films could I find on the life of rural people in other lands of the world?"

"May we use the motion picture camera and some tri-x film to 'shoot' our game Saturday evening?"

"Do you have someone who can tape record the concert on Sunday?"

"Here's my list of films to use with the 10B homemaking class. Will you be able to order them?"

"We will need a record player and public address system for the Square Dance Club on Tuesday."

"Will the photographer be able to help us make colored slides of our puppet show?"

"What is the address of the company which sells the bulletin board wax that I heard about in my audio-visual class?"

"We'd like to get some information about filmstrip projectors. Our PTA is planning to help the school buy a projector."

These queries and many more are typical of those heard in an Audio-Visual Center during the course of an ordinary day.

The Audio-Visual Center should be the home base for motion picture projectors, filmstrips and slide projectors, opaque projectors, tape recorders, and the films, slides, filmstrips, tapes, and other materials and devices needed by the well-trained teacher in today's classroom. The person in charge of the Center should be able, with what free time he is given, to handle the organizational and scheduling program, to obtain needed teaching materials, and to maintain a steady flow of these to the classrooms. The help he needs might be professional help, clerical help, or student help, but in a program of any considerable size help will be needed. The guide books produced by the Department of Audio-Visual Education of the National Education Association, *Planning Schools for the Use of Audio-Visual Materials*, listed later in this article, will enumerate the needs of an Audio-Visual Center.

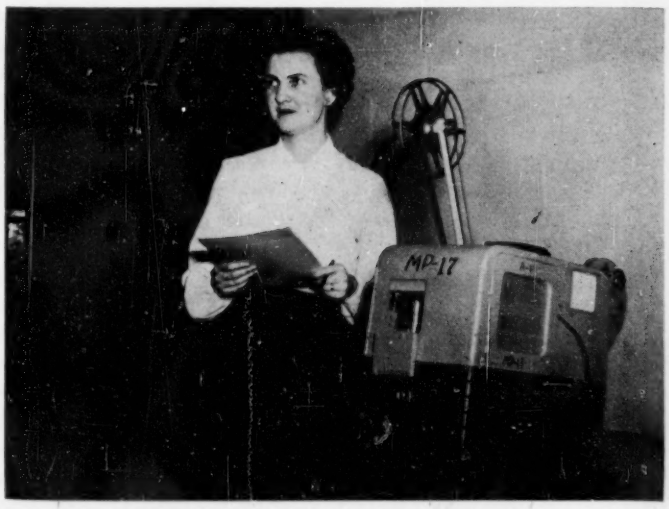
The services of a Center consist of a great deal more than storing and checking out equipment and aids. A thorough understanding of present day education and a knowledge of the needs and aims of teachers and students in our schools are used by the audio-visual director, coordinator, and worker. The use, the application, the proper choice of materials, and the curricular needs of students and teachers are uppermost in the mind of the well-trained audio-visual specialist of today. He soon makes himself indispensable to the proper functioning of the schools he serves.

The audio-visual program will vary with the situation, of course. The college or university will have one type of program. The large city system, the township school and the small city school will have quite different programs; but the person directing the program will be the key to its success, whether it be in college, high school, or elementary school.

The audio-visual coordinator needs to be a person with a background of classroom teaching experience. He needs a thorough training in general education, in education, and especially a thorough training in audio-visual philosophy and techniques. He should, if possible, have had experience using all types of audio-visual materials in school situations. Above all he must have a sincere desire to see that his teachers are furnished with the best in audio-visual materials and that constant efforts are made to improve the quality of materials and to bring the latest and best methods to the attention of the teaching staff.

The Commission on General Education of the State of Indiana has mandated a trained director and financial support for Audio-Visual Education in our commissioned schools and this is a very definite step forward. An Audio-Visual Coordinator, Mrs. Altha Sullivan, has been appointed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction. She has been giving capable leadership and direction and has been influential in setting in motion forces to improve education in Indiana through better audio-visual utilization.

A 184 page handbook entitled *The*



A Teacher Previews a Film in the Audio-Visual Center

Audio-Visual Program, Bulletin No. 218, State of Indiana, Department of Public Instruction, 1956, was prepared under the direction of Mrs. Sullivan and is being distributed to the schools of Indiana. Many others worked on the Handbook including a committee of the Audio-Visual Instruction Directors of Indiana and a capable group on the staff of the Indiana University Audio-Visual Center.

Some of the chapters in this book are: "The Curriculum and Audio-Visual Materials," "Audio-Visual Materials," "Audio-Visual Equipment," and "Local Preparation of Inexpensive Teaching Materials."

This handbook should do much to raise the general understanding of a Center, its purpose, and the classroom uses of audio-visual materials.

The State of Indiana has many examples of good audio-visual programs maintained from an Audio-Visual Center. New Albany, Indiana, has used its audio-visual program under the capable direction of Vernon McKown to improve and upgrade its instructional program and its teaching staff. Fort Wayne, Indiana, has on its supervisory staff an Audio-Visual Director, Miss Catherne Broderick, who works closely with the principals and teachers to assure a constant supply of audio-visual materials and know-how to teachers. South Bend, Indiana, has a very complete audio-visual program under Garrett Weathers' capable direction with Mr. Galen Miller assisting. Michigan City has an outstanding program with George McIntire as director. Vincennes, Sullivan, Gary, Evansville, Vanderburgh County, Indianapolis, Hammond, Martinsville, Richmond, Kokomo, Speedway City, and Warren Central School are some of the many other examples of school systems with successful and functioning audio-visual programs.

In college audio-visual programs we have the Indiana University Audio-Visual Center which has achieved national and international acclaim for its work. Mr. L. C. Larson and his capable staff have led in many of the innovations and improvements in audio-visual teaching throughout the country. Graduates of Indiana University, trained in audio-visual techniques, are in many colleges and other positions in the United States and abroad helping to raise educational efficiency and standards. An imposing number of educational motion picture films has been produced by the Indiana University Audio-Visual Center. Purdue University Audio-Visual Department has operated much the same as any Audio-Visual Center under the direction of Mr. L. D. Miller. The Purdue Center will occupy space in the new Library Building when it is finished and will be operated as a unit department nominally under the Library.

Indiana State Teachers College has an Audio-Visual Center under the direction of the author. It provides the college and the laboratory school with all types of audio-visual service and maintains a rental library of films and filmstrips for schools, colleges, and organizations. The Director, with some help, teaches the audio-visual classes in the Department of Education and there is opportunity for experience in the program by advanced students as graduate assistants. Ball State Teachers College has a film service in connection with the library and also a well developed Teaching Materials Center in the new Library Building.

Only Indiana University and Indiana State Teachers College are at this date approved by the Indiana State Teacher Training and Licensing Commission to grant licenses as Audio-Visual Supervisors to graduates with the masters degree. Graduates who have earned this license should become effective audio-visual directors. These two schools also offer courses which will qualify coordinators or directors with the five semester hours (8 quarter hours) of audio-visual study required of directors in commissioned schools in Indiana.

According to the National Education Association's Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, the Audio-Visual Center and its director should render such services as, "Stimulating and helping teachers, pupils and others make the most of instructional resources; serving as a resource person for curriculum planning groups and other committees; cataloging and organizing materials for use; providing for cooperative exchange of services

The Director Assists in Proper Choice Of Materials

Audio Equipment Used In Classroom Speech Activities

and materials; assisting in formal and informal in-service education; assisting in the use of instructional equipment; providing mechanical and clerical services; producing simple teaching materials."[1]

The duties of a director or coordinator according to Lester B. Sands of Santa Barbara College, University of California, are well put in his book *Audio-Visual Procedures in Teaching*: "The director of educational aids has a much more complicated job than just to acquire, organize, distribute, and keep track of equipment. His most important function is to inspire everybody connected with the school system to make the most effective possible use of all the instructional resources of the school and of the whole community. He should have the superintendent of schools working to persuade the board of education and the taxpayers that they would do well to spend more on teaching materials. He should have the personal force to make building coordinators want to publicize the available materials and help teachers use them. He must be able to make persuasive demonstrations of all educational aids and to coach groups in the use of them. He must have the knowledge and the tact to guide committees in formulating standards for materials and equipment being considered for purchase. . . . There is no meeting these rigorous requirements without teaching experience, a great deal of professional training, and a store of innate wisdom. The director ought to have credentials as teacher and administrator that put him at least on the professional footing of his associates. By virtue of special technical training and study in the field of audio-visual education he should be qualified to conduct the program with authority. A number of colleges now prepare audio-visual directors for their work."[2]

[1]Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of NEA, *Planning Schools for Use of Audio-Visual Materials: No. 3, Audio-Visual Instructional Center*. Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D. C. 1954, p. 14, 80 pp.

[2]Lester B. Sands, *Audio-Visual Procedures in Teaching*, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956, pp. 512-513.

Sincere school people are not too concerned about who handles the audio-visual program, even though they do want it efficiently and properly handled. It seems to the writer that in individual schools these steps should be taken to comply with new rulings of the Commission on General Education of the State of Indiana and to start or continue a good audio-visual program in any school.

1. Appoint the most capable and best trained person in audio-visual education as director or coordinator. Be sure he or she is willing to accept the responsibility.

2. See that he has the material, financial support, and especially some time free from class or student responsibility in which to do the job.

3. Store and manage the program in some suitable, available space. A vacant room, part of the principal's office, a store room off a gymnasium, science room, or space in the library will do.

4. Set up an in-service program at once. Collect catalogs, books, and guide books. Conduct clinics on use and operation of equipment. Ask for help from university or college instruction departments.

5. Take an inventory of what is on hand in audio-visual equipment, the teachers trained in audio-visual use, and the community resources available to the school.

6. Make all progress, information, and equipment available to all by education through bulletins and faculty meetings.

What about the training of individuals to lead in the improvement of the instructional materials programs? Some people have suggested that the school library field could supply the needed trained personnel to coordinate or direct programs. L. C. Larson, Director of the Indiana University Audio-Visual Center states in an article in the *Educational Screen*, "The school library field is confronted not only with a serious shortage of librarians, but also with the fact that a number of persons in school library positions

Continued on page 88

Eighth Indiana Workshop on Teacher Education

The Eighth Indiana Teacher Education Workshop was held at Turkey Run State Park November 6, 7, 8, 1955. Working throughout the year, a Steering Committee* under the resourceful leadership of John W. Best, Butler University, had arrived at the topic. "The Nature of General Education for Prospective Teachers." To this theme workshop members from twenty-six Indiana colleges and universities addressed themselves.

Included in the number of those present were also out-of-state guests from Illinois; the resource leaders, Dean Russell M. Cooper, University of Minnesota, Dr. Robert C. Pooley, Head of the Department of Integrated Studies at the University of Wisconsin, and Dean Thomas H. Hamilton, the Basic College, Michigan State University; along with representatives from the Indiana Classroom Teachers Association, the Committee on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the Indiana State Teachers Association, the State Commission on Teacher Training and Licensing, and the Director of Certification, Dr. H. M. Whisler.

Back among old friends to serve as chairman of the general sessions was Dean J. E. Grinnell now Dean of the College of Education, Southern Illinois University and formerly Dean of Instruction, Indiana State Teachers College. Dean Grinnell was also persuaded to provide the summary evaluation at the end of the workshop as he had the previous year, and again his felicity of phrase and keenness of perception gave the diverse efforts of speakers and discussion groups coherence and focus.

The workshop began on Sunday evening with Dr. Donald M. Sharpe's resumé of the origin and past meetings of this group.

Growing out of meetings held by directors of student teaching, the workshops have become an annual affair in which practically all the institutions of higher learning in the state, along with the state agencies concerned with teaching are represented. Designed as an opportunity to encourage understanding and cooperation among those concerned with teacher education, both professional education teachers and teachers in the traditional liberal arts curriculum, they have succeeded in drawing delegates from virtually every collegiate discipline.

Past workshops have taken up: the identification of problems in teacher education (March, 1949); discussion on the common curriculum for teachers and their proper guidance in training, (November, 1949); permanent organizations of state agencies concerned with teacher training and the identification of desirable competencies for teachers, (1950); special problems such as the development of moral and spiritual attitudes, provisions for student teaching, certification problems, and the Fifth Year proposal (which led to a series of special workshops on that issue,) (1951); the investigation of promising experiments in teacher education around the country, (1952); a consideration of "How Can Our Colleges Develop Intellectual Vigor in Teachers," (1953); and "The Improvement of Instruction in Indiana Colleges," (1954).

Following Dr. Sharpe's historical review, the principal speaker of the evening, Dr. Russell M. Cooper turned attention to the topic for this year's discussion with his address, "General Education for Prospective Teachers," excerpts from which are as follows:

Dr. Cooper

Several years ago Dr. Earl J. McGrath, who was then United States Commissioner of Education, referred to general education as "the most important movement in higher education today." Assuredly if one were to judge by the volumes of print appearing on this subject and the vehemence of arguments pro and con, we must agree that here is an enterprise to be conjured with.

By general education we refer to the non-vocational aspects of the student's preparation, those aspects that make him a cultivated and interesting person irrespective of his major or profession. Since his personal needs and his citizenship responsibilities are essentially the same as for those in other vocations, this general education phase of his preparation can also be the same. Both educationally and economically it makes sense for the teacher to receive his general education in company with the other professional groups.

While general education is important for all, it does have a special significance for the prospective teacher since he is devoting his life to the intellectual enterprise. To the extent that this teacher has a lively mind, a breadth of interest in many fields, and informed convictions of his own, he can command the respect of his students.

It should be noted also that the teacher's understanding of fields outside his own will help greatly in promoting better coordination between his subject and others in the curriculum. Such correlation is becoming more and more important in our modern schools with their emphasis upon core curricula and their anxiety to give the student a rounded experience. Such schools seek to provide experiences that will tie together and have some overall meaning. The teacher who is overly specialized is lost when asked to correlate his work with fields foreign to his experience. General education, then, is important for the citizen but absolutely essential for the teacher.

One may agree with the importance of a broad education but still insist that the traditional liberal education does the job and that no special program such as general education is re-

*Steering Committee, 1955: John W. Best, Butler University, Chairman; Richard W. Burkhardt, Ball State Teachers College; Wenonah G. Brewer, Indiana State Teachers College; Dan H. Cooper, Purdue University; Herbert L. Heller, DePauw University; Karl Massanari, Goshen College; Rev. Xavier Maudlin, St. Meinrad Seminary, George M. Waller, Butler University; Phillip S. Wilder, Wabash College.

quired. But there is no guarantee that introductory departmental courses outside one's major field will really provide the general education competencies required. A prospective English teacher for example should know something about science but if she takes a course in chemistry to fulfill a science requirement she will still know nothing about physics, geology, astronomy, zoology, or botany. Moreover she will be subjected to a course designed primarily for prospective chemistry majors and which will contain technical vocabulary and laboratory exercises of little interest or future use.

In nearly all colleges, the number of courses has multiplied so rapidly that it is now very difficult for a student to get a rounded view of knowledge or of the modern world. He gets an assortment of little fragments and with the rapid accumulation of knowledge, such fragmentation is certain to continue. The general education movement serves as an antidote to such proliferation, seeking to reestablish some comprehensive meaning in the students' experience such as they enjoyed a century ago.

But of what shall this new synthesis consist? There are almost as many patterns of general education as there are colleges engaged in the movement. Despite this wide diversity, however, the programs tend to have certain common features depending on the philosophies that prompt them. We can readily identify four such philosophies and it is important to examine them briefly if we are to understand the rationale behind the courses themselves.

1. Some professors, sometimes labeled the neo-Humanist group, believe that the main function of general education is to transmit the cultural heritage to our oncoming generation. Their program, therefore, seeks to identify the major features of our western culture as reflected in the natural sciences, the social sciences, or the humanities, and to develop survey type courses which acquaint the student with the major elements of these fields. Obviously if the whole field of natural science or social science is to be encompassed in a single offering, there must be a high degree of selectivity and much thought must be devoted to determining what topics and what authors should be included.

Such survey courses have had a mixed history. In some institutions the attempt to "cover" everything has led to such dilution and superficiality that both faculty and students have become utterly frustrated. On the other hand, when the professor has selected his material rigorously and then discussed each topic with sufficient thoroughness to give it depth and meaning, such courses seem to have been quite successful.

2. The so-called Rationalist School contends that the major purpose of general education is to force the student to think. It is not important to seek coverage of the main ideas underlying our modern civilization since this is impossible, but rather we should force the student to come to terms with solid, provocative writings and to develop independent convictions of his own. Such programs usually center on the "great books" as at St. Johns, not so much because these books summarize vast areas of subject matter but rather because they come to grips with the great issues of life. Much attention is given also to the classical experiments in science and to the learning of foreign language and mathematics, on the assumption that such experiences will sharpen the mind and make it a more effective instrument for logically analyzing any issue that might arise in the future. Reference books can always be found to supply necessary information, it is argued, much more reliably in fact than can the student's memory.

3. The Instrumentalist School agrees that there is value in surveying our cultural heritage and in reading provocative works, but it argues that the touchstone for determining topics and materials must be the needs of the students themselves. It is argued that every student must be able to communicate well in speech and writing, he must live as an informed person in our contemporary social scene, he needs certain scientific insights, esthetic appreciations, a sense of values, good physical and mental health, adequate preparation for marriage, sound choice of vocation, and a basis for constructive leisure time activity. The Instrumentalists argue that one begins to build a general education program by studying the backgrounds and problems of the students, pulling from the various disciplines the data and principles that will help students resolve their dilemmas. Instrumentalists contend that this arrangement assures high motivation in the student because the material is patently so relevant and important, and in the end more actual subject matter is learned and digested than will be true under the other systems.

4. Finally, there is an eclectic school of thought which accepts the values of all three of the other philosophies and suggests that all can be interwoven into the program according to the course or even the topic under discussion. There may be, for example, a humanities course that is built on the great books, a natural science course that is essentially a selective survey of basic principles from several sciences, and at the same time courses in preparation for marriage or in social problems that are based squarely upon the needs of young people in our society. This eclectic view has the advantage of enabling various professors to experiment according to their own likes instead of forcing all to the Procrustean measure of a common faculty philosophy. On the other hand, it is possible that where there are so many viewpoints there will be no unity or coherence in the program.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION COURSES

1. A new type of freshman communication course replaces the traditional freshman composition. Recognizing that communication is a four-way process involving speaking, writing, listening, and reading, all four elements are therefore woven together in the same program. Some courses stress the psychological aspect of communication, the importance of self-understanding

and the necessity for sensitivity to the other person's emotional reactions. Some colleges build their courses around the elements of the communication process, language and semantic nuances, principles of logic and organization, and the mass agencies of communication at work in our society.

2. Likewise there are many types of courses in social science. Some of the earlier courses that still survive are organized primarily on the survey principle. They give the students nine weeks of the principles of economics, nine weeks of sociology, nine weeks of government, etc. Other courses are built around social problems such as crime, population pressures, conservation, and housing. But if all the major social problems are discussed there is serious danger again that so little time is available for each that it becomes impossible for the student to gain the deeper insights required for social maturity.

3. Similarly in the humanities there are several approaches to the problem. Some courses are built around the great books, and have as their objective acquainting the student with western traditions and ideas. A somewhat more common course identifies three or four themes and clusters around each theme a selection of philosophical treatises, novels, plays, poetry, art, and music. Fortunately for this kind of course there are now available so many excellent works in paper-backed editions that students may be required without being unreasonable to buy and read many more complete works in the course of a year than otherwise, and if he becomes a lover of good reading, that in itself would justify the course.

There have always been surveys in the humanities field, but somewhat more recent are the broader surveys that seek to introduce the student to the full sweep of man's cultural history, as in the so-called "civilization" courses. Another kind of course has a very different emphasis, centering primarily on the development of esthetic appreciation. Such courses are designed to introduce the student to the major principles of music, art, poetry, and the dance in order that they will understand such media of expression and even develop genuine enjoyment and habits of artistic reception.

4. The most common natural science course in general education is the selective survey. Usually there are two courses, one in the biological sciences and one in the physical sciences. Another kind that has grown up in recent years is that which is concerned with one aspect of the scientific field, a history of science, for instance, which seeks to show how science has developed through the years and has been both a cause and effect of social phenomena.

5. Still another field of general education is that related to problems of personal adjustment. Perhaps the most common course in this field is that dealing with Preparation for Marriage, psychologically oriented to help the student understand the manifold adjustment problems involved and drawing materials from psychology, biology, economics, religion, and any other disciplines that can help the student in developing a more wholesome and understanding attitude concerning his relations with the other sex. Likewise some colleges have courses in human relations based on the case method or built around psychological principles.

It is inevitable that a movement that is as dynamic as general education will suffer from growing pains. Critics provide an essential service in forcing a continual redefinition of purposes and demonstration that quality is not suffering in general education. General education programs must never be allowed to become static, for times and students are continually changing, which means continual evaluations and revisions are necessary. Let us look at some of the problems that are yet to be solved.

1. Where can we find the staff and materials to do this inter-disciplinary job? On every faculty there are persons who are already broad-gauged in their intellectual interests, who have sensitivity to the needs of students and who are already invoking much of the general education spirit in their departmental courses. Such persons can readily be retooled for a broad, general education course if they are willing to devote time and effort to the enterprise. In addition, the graduate schools give promise of turning out Ph.D.'s in the future who will be better prepared for interdisciplinary work.

2. How can courses be related to student needs and yet have substantial content and integrity of their own? Here there is no ready answer, but one can testify that competent teachers have met the problem of offering learning yet not following the traditional organization of established disciplines.

3. How should the general education program be related to the student's high school work on the one hand and his subsequent college work on the other? Preliminary testing at the time the student enters the class, together with counseling and examination of his previous record, will help the teacher to make these adjustments realistically. A problem of serious duplication can arise for the general education student who goes on in the same areas, and faculties must continue to study this problem.

4. Should general education be required or elected? The answer to this question usually depends upon the faculty's philosophy of general education, whether it wishes primarily to transmit the cultural heritage or to meet the individual needs of students. A number of colleges have been moved to begin on an elective basis until after an experimental period during which courses may prove themselves. The need for general education, however, is so urgent that some faculties have devised comprehensive programs and introduced them in entirety with a campaign of promotion and interpretation among students. The methods of development would seem to depend upon the character of the college's resources and the time and leadership available.

In any case, the general education movement has become widely influential in the colleges of America and is making a striking contribution to the improvement of teacher education. It

is heartening to note that as colleges wrestle with these questions they come together in conferences like this to share their problems and their insights.

The remarks of the speakers on the next morning and afternoon were presented no less tellingly, but less formally, since they took the form of descriptions of the general education programs at their own universities, programs with which each speaker had been inimately connected.

The two case studies had been selected by the Steering Committee on the basis that they provided examples of well organized and well advanced but disparate programs, for which articulate speakers were available.

Monday morning Dr. Robert C. Pooley, Head of the Department of Integrated Studies at the University of Wisconsin, discussed the program of integrated liberal studies that his department provides for undergraduates at the University of Wisconsin, many of whom, of course, go into teaching. In the absence of texts of their talks the following summaries are offered:

According to Dr. Pooley, at Wisconsin the integrated program is available only to those enrolled in the College of Letters and Sciences, and is optional for those. Indeed, enrollment is limited to only a part of each class. The program was planned against the background of the "Experimental College" of the 1920's, and learned from the mistakes of that effort. For instance, where students under the earlier scheme worked apart from the Liberal Arts College and tended to become somewhat "precious," the current integrated curriculum remains within the College as a department, not a separate part of the University.

It seeks to reemphasize the value of the liberal arts, and to offer the freshman a means of selecting from the vast and bewildering course offerings of a modern university a curriculum designed along humanist traditions. Courses are offered in the program only by teachers who choose voluntarily to be part of the program; the courses remain eclectic in nature, depending for organization and content on those who teach them, so long as they cover certain agreed-upon areas.

At the present courses are offered in three main areas: the humanities, social studies, and the sciences. The courses in the humanities offer a survey of the major epochs in Western thought. During the first semester students examine the art, literature, and philosophies of classical times, along with Roman law and military organization. In the second semester the emphasis is on the Church in the Middle Ages, and the developments of the Culture of the Renaissance. The second year begins by studying the reasons for the culture of the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, emphasizing the rise of scientific thinking. The concluding semester is devoted to the culture of the United States in the twentieth century, with especial attention to art and literature.

In the second area, that of social studies, the Wisconsin program focuses first on Man and then on his social organization. The first course is conducted by an anthropologist, followed by a sociologist, moving from the paleontology of man to early tribal organization of his society. In the second semester emphasis is placed on medieval agrarian society and its transition to industrial society. The courses in the second year are organized around the major industrial systems of the world, with emphasis on the political and economic life of the United States in comparison with nations like Russia and England, in the first semester, with an examination of the international scene in the second semester emphasizing aspects of cultural geography and political science.

In the third area, that of the sciences, the basic physical sciences are given attention during the first year. The physical universe is given attention first, from the standpoint of the astronomer, physicist, and chemist. The second semester is devoted to the Earth. In the second year a problem approach is attempted to the biological sciences, zoology and botany, through the problems of food, disease, reproduction, etc.

The Wisconsin program has worked well in practice as a general, two-year curriculum. It has attracted the better students and provided them an intellectual challenge. At Wisconsin a third of the candidates for secondary school teaching have enrolled in this general education program, transferring to the College of Education as juniors. The University has only recently begun to offer a program for elementary school teachers; formerly they attended the state teachers colleges exclusively. For that reason, and because of the heavy load of professional courses they are required to take, only a few elementary school teacher candidates have attempted the integrated program. Finally, students with special goals in the field of education have availed themselves of Dr. Pooley's program in large numbers: recreation leaders, dance majors, and art education majors.

On Monday afternoon Dr. Thomas H. Hamilton, Dean of the Basic College, Michigan State University, discussed the compulsory curriculum for freshman and sophomore years established at Michigan State in 1944. This program involves four year-long courses. The first year students have a course in "communication skills" and one in natural science. The second year student takes a course in the social sciences and one in the humanities. Communication skills at Michigan State are classified under four heads,—reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The natural sciences are studied together in the belief that science should be understood as an "intellectual process." The social sciences are approached through three topics: how society educates the young, how it meets its material needs, and how man controls society through political and other institutional establishments.

In evaluating the Michigan State program, Dr. Hamilton stated that after making adjustments in the original plan, which had called for five rather than four basic courses, and the award-

ing of grades by an independent testing bureau, the integrated curriculum was a success. His criteria included full acceptance by the upper college, independent testing of the students, and the acceptance by the students themselves. Problems that have arisen, among others, are that the courses do not offer a sufficient challenge for the superior student, there is no place for a systematic treatment of mathematics, nor is music treated.

Monday evening saw a change in emphasis away from the general education programs as a whole, to consideration of what some typical courses in general education programs might involve.

Present to speak about their own courses were professors from three Indiana institutions, Dr. George Manhart from DePauw University, Dr. J. Crawford Polley of Wabash College, and Dr. James A. Huston of Purdue University. These teachers provided syllabi to go along with their explanations, in response to a suggestion derived from past workshop experiences, which aided immeasurably in the facility with which the audience followed the descriptions.

Dr. Manhart described DePauw's course in the history of western civilization, "a survey of the development of man from prehistoric times to the present," which "attempts to integrate man's achievements and interests in government, economics, art, literature, music, philosophy, and religion." This is a four hour course, given by professors drawn from history, art, literature, music, philosophy, and religion departments.

Wabash College's basic mathematics course was described by Professor Polley, its teacher, as an experimental course designed to give the student some factual knowledge and skill in the application of mathematics to the varied problems encountered in attempting to comprehend our physical and social environment, but more especially to convey an appreciation of the relation between modern mathematics and human endeavor and the ability of mathematics to contribute to human understanding. Without pain and with considerable amusement the workshop itself learned something of the "set-theoretic" approach to mathematics.

Differing from the freshman courses previously described, Purdue University's "Great Issues" course is offered to seniors. Dr. Huston, with two others, guides reading in the "great books" kind of sources, ranging from Plato to Freud and from Aristotle to Einstein.

Morning and afternoon on Monday, after the resource speakers, and Tuesday morning the workshop divided into discussion groups according to the four general subject matter fields, Social Studies, Language Arts, Humanities, and Science and Mathematics. Each group concerned itself with the problem of general education of prospective teachers in its own general area. During these discussions, it was a common experience to stray far afield as is natural with a broad topic, but a compilation of the notes kept by each group's recorder indicates that each group finally arrived at areas of agreement on certain matters and remained in complete lack of agreement on others.

Areas of agreement included the firm conviction that general education was equally important for the prospective teacher as for all students, that general education for prospective teachers should be no different from general education for other students, that programs in general education must be devised with the particular problems of each institution in mind, that they take time, money, and effort to manage, and that they call for clear recognition of aims along with faculty cooperation to reach their goals.

Lack of agreement was evident concerning the following:

1. When general education courses should be given—suggestions ranged from freshman to senior to fifth year.

2. Whether integrated courses were better than more traditionally organized survey courses.

3. Whether integration is possible in the course or only in the student.

4. The extent of choice to be offered the student.

5. To what extent general education courses may be allowed to become specialized, a problem especially for the sciences and mathematics.

6. Whether the purpose of general education is primarily that of introduction to advanced subject matter, integration of the various allied disciplines, or to serve the needs of those students who do not plan to finish college.

Each group, too, was concerned with some matters not held in common with the other groups.

The Social Studies group agreed that its subject matter even as traditionally offered was well adapted to general education purposes, which lessened the need to devise new, integrated courses or similar experiments. Emphasis was laid, rather, on the continuing need for higher quality of instruction leading to better student understanding of the values inherent in the subject. General agreement was had, also, that both history and the social sciences should be taught, that either might well be taught through the other, as well as separately. The group went on record opposing large lecture courses as a solution to the future enrollment problem, in the belief that this would discourage promising experimentation looking toward more effective teaching and defeat the goals of general education.

The Humanities group registered discontent with the way traditional courses in the humanities were failing to attain the goals of general education and urged the need for new approaches to bring interest and meaning to the subject for the general education student.

The Language Arts group, too, urged experimentation in its fields, such as use of workshop techniques, greater informality, abandonment of the textbook approach, and better coordination among the various disciplines in this field.

The Science and Mathematics group

engaged in a fruitful discussion of the problem of how to devise general education courses for students with varied backgrounds and varied goals: some intending to teach science, others intending to teach in another field, and still others intending to specialize in science other than as teachers. The group agreed that in an age wherein science must have such a large part, the general education program must solve the problem of science and mathematics courses that will give all students a better understanding of this field than they have often had in previous years.

In his evaluation, with which the Workshop was concluded, Dean Grinnell took note of the many problems raised by the principal speakers and summed up the tenor of the discussion group sessions, allowing each group recorder to present a brief summary of the ground traversed by his group. The struggle in the groups between traditionalists and the advocates of integrated courses was seen by the Dean as "past and future meeting in the present."

He took note, too, of the pleasure of the traditional informality of this workshop, the recreational hours that form a necesary counterpoint to the work of the workshop, and the pleasant hours outside walking and talking amidst the fall foliage which he aptly characterized in the words "autumn wading."

Roster of Participants

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Dr. Howard A. Book, Director of Teacher Education, Manchester College, North Manchester, Indiana

Dr. Wayne Booth, Head, Department of English, Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana

Dr. Wenonah G. Brewer, Assistant Director Secondary Student Teaching, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana

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Dr. Richard W. Burkhardt, Dean of the College, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana

Mr. Edward Coleson, Professor of Education, Huntington College, Huntington, Indiana

Miss Margaret Conrad, Rec. Secretary of Indiana Classroom Teachers Assoc., Terre Haute, Indiana

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Dr. Russell Cooper, Dean, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

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Rev. William F. Cunningham, Director of the Faculty, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana

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Dr. R. M. Kutz, Director of Teacher Education, Hanover, College Hanover, Indiana

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Rev. Ernest A. J. Lucas, Instructor of Education and Director of Reading Clinic, St. Joseph's College, Collegeville, Indiana

Miss Margaret E. Luke, Indiana Classroom Teachers Assoc. President, Elkhart, Indiana

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Dr. Walton Manning, Assistant Professor, Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana

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Sister Mary Olivia, Director of Student Teaching, Marian College, Indianapolis, Indiana

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Dr. H. M. Whisler, Director of Certification, Danville, Indiana

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Dr. Frank Woerdehoff, Assistant Professor of Industrial Education, Purdue University, West Lafeyette, Indiana

McDougal

Continued from page 81

are inadequately trained. A recent report[3] from the Indiana Department of Public Instruction indicates that 236 out of 800 school librarians in Indiana have not had any work in library science. Sixty-one have had between one and seven semester hours, and fifty-two have had between eight and fifteen semester hours. Most of the other states are confronted with the same problem of a considerable number of persons in library positions who have had inadequate training in the library science field and no training in the audio-visual field. . . ."

"The available information seems to indicate that the school library field will have difficulty in obtaining a sufficient number of qualified librarians to serve adequately teachers and pupils with books, magazines, and other published materials. Consequently, the demand for school librarians as well as for audio-visual supervisors and coordinators will be met only through the full use of both the school library and audio-visual resources in higher institutions for the education of professional workers in the instructional materials area."[4]

Sources of information for those who wish to enlarge or improve their audio-visual program:

Dale, Edgar, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*. New York: Dryden Press, 1954 (rev. ed.) 534 pp.

Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of NEA, *Planning Schools for Use of Audio-Visual Materials: No. 1, Classrooms*, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1952, 40 pp.

Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of NEA, *Planning Schools for Use Of Audio-Visual Materials, No. 2, Auditoriums*, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1953, 36 pp.

Department of Audio-Visual in-

[3]Indiana, State Department of Public Instruction, *Professional Status of School Library Personnel in Indiana*, (vol. 2, number 3, in *Indiana Research Bulletin* series) by Carolyn Whitenack and Beeman N. Phillips, Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, Indianapolis, April, 1955, 6 pp, mim.

[4]L. C. Larson, "Coordinate the A-V Way and the Library Way," *Educational Screen*, 34:267, Summer, 1955.

struction of NEA, *Planning Schools for Use of Audio-Visual Materials: No. 3, Audio-Visual Instructional Center.*

Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of NEA, *The School Administrator and His Audio-Visual Program*, edited by Charles Schuller, 1954 Yearbook of DAVI, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1954, 384 pp.

Kinder, James S., *Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques.* New York: American Book Co., 1950. 624 pp.

Michigan Audio-Visual Association, *Audio-Visual Programs in Action*, edited by Ford L. Lemler, Michigan Audio-Visual Association, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1951, 112 pp.

MAGAZINES

Educational Screen, Chicago 1, Illinois. Monthly, September through June. $3.00. A widely read audio-visual magazine. Contains evaluations of 16mm educational and religious films and a variety of articles and regular features.

Teaching Tools, Ver Halen Publishing Co., 6327 Santa Monica Blvd., Hollywood 38, California. Quarterly. $4.00. Case histories of the use of instructional materials in teaching.

Educational Film Guide, 1953, H. W. Wilson Company, 950-972 University Ave., New York 52, New York. 11th Edition, completely revised. $7.50 or $12.50 with seven supplements, issued semi-annually. Lists 11,900 films alphabetically and then according to the Dewey Decimal classification. Film date, grade level, brief description of contents, critical comments, and purchase sources are given in the classified section. Directory of producers and distributors is handy list for addresses. Also contains order numbers for 4,000 Library of Congress Cards and, 2,000 EFLA Evaluation Cards. Notations are given of film reviews appearing in *Educational Screen*, *Saturday Review*, and *Film News*, and high ratings from a group of evaluators are indicated as follows: (*).

Educators Guide to Free Films, 15th Edition, Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin, Annual. $6.00. The 1955 edition contains a classified list of 3,069 free films with descriptions. Indexed by subject and title. Lists sources.

Boyle

Continued from page 75

television teacher was an added incentive for thorough preparation in using television tools.

The Challenge of Closed Circuit Television. The many implications of the use of closed circuit television as an instructional method holds particular challenge for the teacher training institution.

1. Present uses of television as an instructional device in both open and closed circuit systems would seem to indicate an increased use of the medium in the future. Prospective teachers now enrolled as students will be able to use television to greater advantage in their classrooms, regardless of grade level, if they have experienced instruction by TV.

2. Teacher training colleges should pioneer in the experimentation of how best to capture the talents of the teacher and project them by means of the television camera. Teaching is not an electronic process but a human one, and the telecaster must learn how to use his camera to emphasize each teacher's particular talents.

3. Teacher training colleges are in a most favorable position for the direction of in-school telecasting. By tapping their educational know-how, the teacher may cooperate with the in-service teacher and school administrator in planning a curriculum of programs to be telecast into the schools. Closed circuit television may serve as a proving ground for testing such programs.

4. Teacher training institutions may provide a better kind of teacher preparation by giving the prospective teacher an unobserved look at children during work and at play as only the immediacy of the television camera can record. The application of some sociometric techniques as well as the making of firsthand anecodotal records of behavior and interaction patterns may be carefully prepared under the personal supervision of the instructor. Closed circuit television, in certain areas of the teaching-learning situation where highly specialized techniques are employed, such as counseling, may provide the teacher-trainee with an opportunity to make firsthand observations of theory applied to practice. The master teacher may be observed in action by the student teacher without disturbing the classroom rapport by having visitors present.

5. Teacher training institutions, through the use of closed circuit television facilities, may give in-service teachers and administrators a better understanding and appreciation of this newest communication medium which consumes so much of their pupil's out-of-school time.

Book Reviews

Concise Dictionary of American Literature. By Robert Fulton Richards. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., pp. 251 vii, $5.00.

Mr. Richards, the editor, says in his preface: "This dictionary was prepared with continuing reference to the question, "What is important and meaningful in the study of American literature?" The *Dictionary* includes the important facts about most of the writers of the United States; explanations of such terms as *Transcendentalism, imagism, romanticism, realism, naturalism;* surveys of criticism, the drama, the novel, peotry, and the short story in America; comment on important periodicals and clubs and associations, and twenty-five full-page illustrations.

The space given to the different writers varies from two lines to the slightly more than four pages devoted to Whitman. The *Dictionary* is slanted in favor of the twentieth century wri-

ters and those in the nineteenth century who especially influenced them. Justice is hardly done to the writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, to the Knickerbocker Group, and to most of the New England writers of the nineteenth century. Melville, Whitman, Emily Dickinson, and Henry James are treated at length, but only a few lines are devoted to Jonathan Edwards, and only half a page to all three of the Mathers. Emerson, Hawthorne, and Thoreau are somewhat slighted. Due credit is not given to Whittier's importance in the Abolition Movement, and no mention is made of *Snow-Bound*. Cognizance is not taken of the vast popularity and influence of Longfellow. One must grant, however, that the average student will be more interested in the later writers.

In most of the brief biographies the essential facts are given. In addition, are included interesting details of which many readers will not be aware, such as the fact that Gertrude Atherton is a great-grandniece of Benjamin Franklin and that Bernard DeVoto has written six novels under the name of John August.

The surveys of criticism, the novel, the drama, poetry, and the short story will be particularly useful to the student. They cover approximately a fifth of the book. Of necessity, they are over-simplified, but each covers its field satisfactorily and will furnish the necessary background for the average student. So far as this reader is concerned, the best is the one on the drama; the least satisfactory, the one on the short story. In several cases, these surveys supplement main entries on writers which otherwise would seem incomplete.

The definitions of such terms as *imagism*, *naturalism*, and *realism* will be a comfort to the puzzled student. Instructors are inclined to take such terms for granted and to make no explanations.

One of the gratifying features of the book is the illustrations, full-page pictures of some of the major writers of the twentieth century, although they do not include Louisa M. Alcott, Emily Dickinson, Walt Whitman, Mark Twain, and Stephen Crane. They are interesting pictures, usually ones not known to the average reader. Those of T. S. Eliot and Eugene O'Neill are especially nice.

Mr. Richards' *Dictionary*. will prove a useful tool to the student of American literature. It contains a great deal of easily available information, which will be more than adequate for most of his needs. Further, he will find it written in a racy, colloquial style which will dispel at once his prejudice against the conventional reference book.

It will hardly serve so well the purposes of the teacher and scholar. They will be aware of omissions, of statements whose complete truth they question, and of facts given which are somewhat out of focus, However, it will be a joy to them when they are in haste to check a date or a minor figure about which they are vague.

Sara King Harvey
Professor of English
Indiana State Teachers College

Junior High School Trends, By Leonard V. Koos, Harper and Brothers pp. 171, 1955. Price $2.50.

This small book should be read by every secondary administrator and teacher because Dr. Koos is in a position to evaluate objectively the entire period of the growth and development of the junior high school. This he does in simple, clear-cut fashion.

The content is as follows: The Growth and Status of Reorganization; The Purpose of Reorganization; Organization of the Curriculum; Retreat from Departmentalization; The Program of Extra-Class Activities; The Program of Guidance; The Program of Differentiation; and Prospects of Further Reorganization.

At a time when there is much need for consolidation, new school buildings, reorganization of educational services, core curricula, and improved guidance services help is given by Dr. Koos who sees the junior high school as a continuously dynamic movement." Since World War II there has been a "reacceleration" of reorganized schools even though the district system is a deterrent in some states. In conclusion, the vision of a junior high school as a distinctive type of educational program for young adolescents has been proved a positive feature of American secondary education over the last thirty years. Dr. Koos has lived to see a dream come true and looks forward to further reorganization in the years to come.

There is an excellent, carefully chosen annotated bibliography at the close based upon the chapters listed above. Here in one volume is a course in the junior high school which might well be emphasized in teacher training programs of the future. No school administrator should omit this little book from his professional growth program.

Helen Ederle
Assoc. Prof. of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

Abstracts of Theses

Stephens, Mary Ann V. *A Study of the Provisions for Family Life Education in the Public Secondary Schools of Indiana*. June, 1955. 97 pp. No. 764

Problem. The purpose of this study was to survey the provisions for family life education in the public secondary schools of Indiana and to compare the curricular, extra-curricular, adult, and joint school and community provisions in the schools with small enrollments with the schools reporting large enrollments.

Method. The questionnaire method was followed in this study. Seven hundred and thirty-one questionnaires were mailed to the principals of the secondary schools of Indiana. Four hundred and seventy-seven or 65 per cent of the questionnaires were returned.

Findings. All schools offered at least one course in the area of family life

exception, by all schools was home economics. Most schools offered two or more courses in the area considered.

Thirty-two different courses which respondents considered contributive to family life education were reported. A total of 1,117 were reported as being offered in all the schools.

A total of 54,631 students were enrolled in all the family life education courses in the first semester of 1954-1955. Approximately one-half of all the students in the schools surveyed were enrolled in a course or courses education. The course offered, without which contributed to family life education.

When considered as a group more courses are taught at the ninth and tenth grade levels than at the eleventh and twelfth grade levels.

Almost one-third of all the schools listed traditional courses in which units of family life education were taught. Slightly more than one-third of all the units were concerned with consumer education.

A majority of teachers of family life education courses and units which are considered in this study are women.

The home economics teacher was listed by slightly more than half of the respondents as the title of the teacher of family life education.

Almost one-tenth of the schools plan to offer a new course in the area of family life education in the foreseeable future.

The 4-H Club was the most frequently reported extra-curricular organization. A mean of 4.19 extra-curricular activities per school were reported.

Only 5.87 per cent of all the schools offered adult education courses in the area of family life education. The schools in the three larger groups offered almost 85 per cent of the adult courses referred to in the previous sentence.

Some 37.94 per cent of the schools reported that they participated in joint school and community organizations to provide other aspects of family life education.

A majority of the respondents who included replies of opinion and attitude about family life education mentioned the new vocational home economic resource unit in Family Relationships.

Lynch, James Joseph. *A Study of Niccolo Machiavelli's Philosophy of the State as Derived from The Prince and the Discourses on the First Ten Books of Titus Livius.* June, 1955. No. 763. 71 pp.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to make a critical study of *The Prince* by Niccolo Machiavelli, primarily but not exclusively, as a reflection of a careful reading of his *Discourses on the First Ten Books of Titus Livius.* The problem was to detect paradoxes in Machiavelli's larger philosophy of the state through such a comparison of his works.

Method. Evaluation of certain passages and critical analysis was the method used to disclose paradoxical elements in Machiavelli's philosophy of the state.

Findings. Machiavelli left entirely out of historical account those people in whose development Christianity played so large a part. In using history to illustrate predictions, he ignored certain historical details. He was not impartial in his motives for writing and in addition, he saw government of a state only from the viewpoint of the ruler and not the ruled. He ignored the double nature of man when he discarded natural law which further posited an inverted ethics. However, because he dealt with living forces in the state, his works continue to be of value.

INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

Summer Terms, 1956

FIRST SUMMER TERM: JUNE 18 - JULY 20 ● **SECOND SUMMER TERM: JULY 23 - AUGUST 24**

FOR SCHEDULE OF SUMMER CLASSES

WRITE TO: JOSEPH E. KISH

DIRECTOR OF INFORMATION SERVICES

1956 Summer Workshops and Short Courses

Supplementing the wide range of regular summer session classes, the College has planned twenty-seven workshops and short courses for the summer of 1956. Some of these special workshops and short courses are of short duration and are intensive; others convene for the entire period of a summer term. Those scheduled during the 1956 Summer Terms are listed below. For further information, write to Mr. Joseph E. Kish, Director of Information Services, for the special Bulletin of 1956 Summer Workshops - Short Courses.

First Summer Term

Workshop in Elementary Art Education	**June 18-29**
Workshop in Art of Enameling	**July 16-21**
Workshop in Bookkeeping - Typing - Shorthand and General Business	**June 18 - July 4**
Workshop in Secretarial Machines	**July 5-20**
Workshop in Audio-Visual Materials	**June 18 - July 20**
Reading Workshop	**June 18-29**
Workshop Elementary Woodwind Technic	**July 9-20**
Workshop Elementary Brass Technic	**July 9-20**
Workshop Woodwind Ensembles	**June 19-30**
Workshop Wind Solo Materials	**July 9-20**
Workshop Problems in Elementary Music	**July 9-20**
Workshop Choral Materials	**June 19-30**
Workshop for Elementary Science Teachers	**June 18 - July 20**
Workshop for Secondary Science Teachers	**June 18 - July 20**
Radio Workshop	**June 18 - July 20**
Advanced Radio Workshop	**June 18 - July 20**
Guidance Workshop on Secondary Level	**June 18-29**
Workshop in Student Teaching for Teachers who wish to apply for Critic Teachers License	**June 18 - July 20**
Citizenship Education Workshop	**June 18 - July 20**

Second Summer Term

Workshop Elementary Brass Technic	**August 6-18**
Workshop Percussion Technic	**July 30 - August 11**
Workshop Brass Ensembles	**July 24 - August 4**
Workshop Band Materials	**August 6-18**
Workshop Orchestral Materials	**July 24 - August 4**
Workshop Music Education String Materials	**July 24 - August 4**
Workshop Seminar in Band Materials	**August 6-18**
Workshop for Principals of Twelve-Grade Schools	**July 23 - August 3**